

# THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL METHOD

Devoted to the Improvement of Teaching and Supervision

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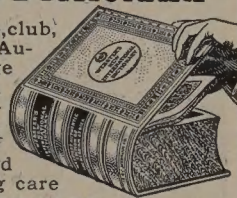
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# The Journal of Educational Method

VOLUME II

MARCH, 1923

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## EDITORIALLY SPEAKING

### A HOUSE ORGAN FOR VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

*The Vocational Education Magazine* has reached the third number and settled into its stride. That it will adequately represent the interests of those concerned with progress in this field is evident. Assisting Professor Snedden, who acts as editor-in-chief, are no fewer than six departmental editors, each with two associates. The departments are as follows: Agriculture, Commerce, Home-making, Industry, Part-time and Continuation Education, and Training in Industry, in charge respectively of George A. Work, of Cornell University, F. G. Nichols, of Harvard University, Mildred W. Wood, of Phoenix, Arizona, C. A. Prosser, of Dunwoodie Industrial Institute, Robert J. Leonard, of the University of California, and C. R. Allen, also of Dunwoodie Industrial Institute.

That many educators "view with alarm" the development of vocational education as a distinct interest seems to be well understood by the leaders of the movement. In the current issue of his magazine Professor Snedden pays his respects to a number of "Vocational Education Bogies." Dual control,

he thinks, has not proved as dangerous as was feared. In some cases it is probably wise. To provide opportunity for vocational training for those who can not afford to attend expensive technical schools is but to obey the promptings of the democratic spirit. As for the narrowness of vocational training, the real fault of much vocational school education is not that it is too narrow but that it is attempting too many kinds of good things.

Certainly the results of general or "cultural" training in our schools are not such as to warrant too jealous support. That much of the formal subject matter of the traditional classical high school is not only not worth while but often actually stultifying is too evident to require demonstration. The complete change of attitude on the part of the student when a real job comes along, such as looking after the school paper, is astonishing. High-school pupils in fact do not take the traditional stuff seriously. Were it not for the social stamp of graduation and perhaps also the ambition to add the second decoration of the college diploma, it would not be possible to keep so many of them at it.



Tradition dies hard, however, and general training, knowledge for its own sake, and similar objectives will continue to appeal to many minds as valid aims of high-school work for a good while yet.

The movement for vocational education promises to do a good deal toward a new tradition. Conceived originally as an effort to assist those who must go early into the actual struggle for a livelihood, it is becoming a challenge to the whole leisure class theory. Should not all of our educational measures be judged in relation to actual life and that in the present rather than in the more or less distant future? Should not the school be looked upon as a place to do real things, things having as much significance to the student himself as what he may do later? Has not the time come for shelving the whole practice of

building the education of youth upon deferred values? In a broad sense, should not all pupils be conscious of being "called"? Surely we ought to be able to give a better reason for high-school study than merely that it prepares (or is alleged to prepare) for further study.

At all events the Society for Vocational Education is giving us something to think about. Even the philologist who complained that he was beginning to have automobile mechanics for his colleagues and couldn't talk to them may discover soon that it is as far from A to B as from B to A. A philologist alone with engine trouble on a country road easily raises the question as to what knowledge is today of most worth. The answer of the Middle Ages sounds less plausible than it once did.

## SUPERVISION AND EDUCATIONAL AIMS<sup>1</sup>

W. D. ARMENTROUT

*Director of Training Schools, Colorado State Teachers College, Greeley, Colorado*

When formal education becomes a distinct undertaking in order to fit the individual for his place in society, there arises a need for reflection on the aims and purposes of education. We have followed our usual procedure of doing unreflectively the things that need to be done, and afterward to develop a theory to explain why and what we have done. The need of theory does not become apparent until we discover that our results do not correspond with

our expectations. Then it is that we see the necessity of examining our practice to find out just what it is we are trying to do and to develop a better method of procedure.

The conception of general education is made necessary by the gap between the child and society, or the life of the child and that of the adult. As Moore says, "There is the individual, on the one hand, and the world in which he must live, on the other. Men have been

<sup>1</sup> The writer's indebtedness to the writings of Professor B. H. Bode will be apparent to all readers.



living here a long time and have accumulated a great deal of knowledge which somehow or other must guide each new traveller. But how shall these two terms of the educational equation be brought together?"<sup>1</sup> The school does not attempt to prepare for adult life as it is, but rather as it should be. In order to accomplish this we need some standard or standards to determine what adult life should be. Here we are confronted with our fundamental problem: what should be the aims and ideals back of our efforts? What are the results we should seek? Is there any principle or set of principles by which we may select them?

#### TEACHERS' AND SUPERVISORS' CONSIDERATION OF AIMS

Teachers are apparently not conscious of the fundamental aims of education and have very little notion as to what is really to be accomplished for their pupils. Gray<sup>2</sup> asked two hundred elementary teachers to report the problems on which they needed help. The individual items are listed approximately in the order of their frequency:

1. How to teach pupils to read silently and to study effectively.
2. How to conduct supervised study periods effectively.
3. How to secure an adequate amount of appropriate reference material.
4. How to teach problem-solving lessons effectively.
5. How to conduct socialized recitation.
6. How to keep bright pupils busy and slow ones up to the standard.
7. How to secure better home work when there are no supervised study periods.

8. What are the important outcomes of instruction in each subject?

9. Where to place emphasis in each subject and how to progress with sufficient rapidity.

10. What appropriate standards of work are for each grade.

11. How to find out the most effective helps—references, maps, devices, materials, etc.—for each subject.

12. How to interest and control unruly pupils.

13. Special problems relating to particular subjects, *i. e.*, how to teach long division, etc.

Only one item — No. 8 — out of the thirteen, shows much interest or the feeling of any need for a study of aims, ideals, and purposes. These results reveal a common weakness among teachers, namely, the lack of understanding of aims and an inability to apply educational principles. No doubt this is due to a lack of insight rather than indifference. Hosic analyzes the cause of this difficulty and suggests the remedy. "The common purposes of teachers should be set forth in the course of study. Considering its importance, it is remarkable that the making of courses of study for the schools should still be in so elemental a stage. Perhaps the majority of present-day courses of study consist in nothing more than the outlines of topics. These are so formal and so bare as to give no specific idea to the teacher as to what is to be accomplished for the pupil. . . . Something between a plan book on the one hand and a vague philosophy of education on the other is needed."<sup>3</sup>

A study of the current practice among supervisors seems to reveal the fact that they, too, are not paying very much attention or giving serious considera-

<sup>1</sup> Moore, E. C. *What Is Education?* p. 205.

<sup>2</sup> Gray, W. S. "Improving the Technique of Teaching." *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 20, p. 272.

<sup>3</sup> Hosic, J. F. "Technique of Supervision." *School and Society*, Vol. 9, p. 436.



tion to the fundamental aims and purposes of education. They are rather placing much emphasis upon special methods, devices, school management, tests, etc. Morrison<sup>1</sup> reports on a study he made of the methods of improving classroom instruction by supervision. A questionnaire was sent to supervising principals and helping teachers of the State of New Jersey. More than one hundred replies were received, eighty-seven of which gave a definite answer to the main question: "Please state as concretely and as definitely as possible, and somewhat in detail, the method you have used . . . to improve the classroom teaching." The methods described were analyzed and carefully listed under eleven main headings: personal conferences; teaching the class; having teachers visit other teachers; by directing professional study; by improving classroom management; teachers' meetings; demonstration lessons; by contact with pupils; by providing material, books, and class aids; use of measurements; by letters or bulletins to teachers.

Not one of these eleven factors deals directly with the problem of fundamental aims and ideals of education. We might naturally expect to find some attention given to this field under personal conferences, professional study, and teachers' meetings. Let us examine these briefly. Personal conferences consisted in offering encouragement and inspiration; pointing out teacher's weak points, errors or faults; offering new plans; leading teacher to recognize her

own weakness and to seek improvement. Apparently personal conferences deal largely with specific suggestions, methods, and devices. In analyzing the various factors under professional study Morrison comes to the conclusion that supervisors often suggest professional books to be read, but very little attempt is made to check up on these suggested readings. The majority of teachers' meetings seem to be for general purposes, and the favorite subjects discussed are the difficulties of individual pupils, general instructions to teachers, and details of school organization and management.

Gray, in discussing the standards or principles by means of which supervisors shall judge the adequacy of teachers' methods, says: "Two sources of information are available and can be used to distinct advantage. . . . The first is the principles derived through scientific experiments which underlie the effective and economical teaching of various elementary school subjects. . . . The second body of information is the principles which underlie good practice in the general field of methodology."<sup>2</sup> In the analysis of this problem a very important factor has apparently been overlooked. Principles of method will show us more clearly how to go about our work and principles derived through scientific experiments will show us whether we have accomplished our work effectively; but neither of these will show us what it is we really want to accomplish by our efforts. Unless we have a working

<sup>1</sup> Morrison, J. C. "Methods of Improving Classroom Instruction by Helping Teachers and Supervising Principals of New Jersey." *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 20, p. 208.

<sup>2</sup> *Op. cit.*, p. 272.



knowledge of the fundamental bases of aims and methods we are at the mercy either of tradition or of every fad that comes along.

#### SIGNIFICANCE OF AIMS

The way in which subject matter is presented by the teacher will depend entirely upon the purpose that he seeks to accomplish. The history of education shows clearly that aims not only determine the materials to be used but also the method of presenting them. When the aim of education was to discipline the mind, the method and practice reflected the idea. When highly centralized county and state systems of education impress the teacher with the idea that the aim is to pass certain examinations, the method of teaching clearly shows the existence of that belief. If the teacher believes that the purpose of her work is to make her pupils measure up to certain standard tests, and her salary increase depends upon this, it is absolutely certain that her method and practice will reflect this purpose or aim.

In general our present practice reveals two contrasting and apparently conflicting aims. One aim is to transmit a certain amount of educational material or subject matter; the other aim is to use this material for the purpose of forming certain ideals or predispositions, and to give new and meaningful significance to the facts of everyday living. Our present emphasis on tests and measurements has tended to divert attention from the second aim. What we measure is generally the success in transmitting educational materials. Results in the direction of the

other ideal can perhaps be measured, but the emphasis in existing tests is not placed here. It may be we need a further set of tests. However, we should remember that reproducible knowledge, while of real value, should not be confused with the entire aim of education.

There need not necessarily be a conflict between these two aims. Legibility and speed in penmanship can be developed along with an appreciation and a desire for neatness; a spelling consciousness can be developed together with the ability to spell; rate and comprehension in reading need not be sacrificed in developing a keen appreciation and taste for good literature; speed and accuracy in the fundamental processes of mathematics need not be sacrificed through the study of problems that introduce the learner into the fields of astronomy, surveying, engineering, economics, and sociology; important historical and geographical facts need not be neglected in "bringing about the enlargement of the significance of direct personal experience." Bagley shows the interdependence of knowledge and ideals in the following passage:

"One might acquire information regarding civic organization, social hygiene, good government, and a host of other socially important topics, but unless one were inspired with powerful socializing ideals, the knowledge would be a luxury without a purpose. Similarly, one might be possessed of the strongest social motives, and still be unable to realize one's aims because one lacked the facts and principles that must be interpolated as means to ends.



The failure of mere knowledge to work social reforms is too obvious to need discussion. The failure of unintelligent enthusiasm has been painfully apparent in connection with the well-meaning but often futile attempts that have been represented by political corruption, child labor, the miscarriage of justice, and the social evil." <sup>1</sup>

#### CURRENT PRACTICE AMONG SUPERVISORS

In an attempt to find out just what we are trying to do and to formulate a better method of procedure, we have developed a new field in education known as a supervision. The generally accepted view of supervision, I believe, is expressed by Morrison in the following manner: "Some one must be responsible for seeing that the instruction in each and every classroom meets an acceptable standard of excellence. Making sure of this school service is supervision." <sup>2</sup> This brings us again to our fundamental problem. What is efficient teaching? What determines the "standard of excellence"? It is interesting to notice the standard which supervision proposes. To quote from Ashbaugh: "If the supervisory force does not function through the teacher in increased efficiency in class work, its existence cannot be justified or maintained. This increased efficiency must manifest itself through either a greater quantity of work of a given quality, an equal quantity of better quality, or an equal quantity and quality at a lesser time expenditure." <sup>3</sup> Everything will

depend upon the meaning of "better quality." What is the test or standard? It might mean reference to a sound educational ideal or to the mere reproduction of subject matter, or what not. This passes rather lightly over the vital problem.

Courtis,<sup>4</sup> in order to discover objective evidence of the effect of supervision in geography, measured the mechanical skill of pupils to identify on an outline map the states of the United States and to name and locate thirty of the more important cities. This test may have been a very good one for discovering how many geographical facts the pupils retained at that particular moment, but certainly it is a very inadequate instrument for measuring efficient teaching or supervision. Surely efficient teaching in geography depends upon something more than bare facts. According to McMurry:<sup>5</sup> "Instruction cannot rest with cold facts alone. Its quality is to be measured, partly by its provision for the growth of motive. One object of teaching a pupil how to keep the skin healthy should be to arouse a desire on his part to practice the rules of hygiene thus learned. One object of teaching him how to play games should be to make him want to learn more games, even throughout life. One object of teaching the Crusades in history might well be, by showing how superficial the causes were, and how much the warfare cost, to influence the youth's attitude toward the present movement for arbitration. One object of teaching about

<sup>1</sup> Bagley, W. C. *Educational Values*, p. 153.

<sup>2</sup> Morrison, J. C. "Supervision from the Teacher's Viewpoint." *Journal of Educational Method*, Vol. I, p. 131.

<sup>3</sup> Ashbaugh, R. J. "Some Essentials in School Supervision." *Journal of Educational Research*, VI, p. 116.

<sup>4</sup> Courtis, S. A. "Measuring the Effects of Supervision." *School and Society*, X, pp. 60-70.

<sup>5</sup> McMurry, F. M. *Report on the Quality of Classroom Instruction*, p. 8.



John Hampden is to lead pupils to determine to imitate him."

Courtis says, in a footnote of the article already referred to, that he does not attempt to justify the subject matter used but that his sole purpose is to measure the efficiency of supervision. Here we have an attempt to separate method and content and it shows rather clearly the need for careful study and reflection on the fundamental issues of education, especially with regard to the standard of values which should determine the materials of the curriculum and methods. Methods and facts both belong to the content of subject matter and are valuable only when taken together. This separation of content and process leaves the learner with the feeling that he has learned nothing that is applicable to anything outside of school. We are teaching but not educating.

There is a growing demand among supervisors for more objective standards for measuring efficient teaching, which they assumed to be based upon the amount of subject matter reproduced. As an illustration, the standard of efficiency in reading for eighth-grade pupils is assumed to be "the ability to read ordinary or non-technical material at the rate of not less than two hundred and forty words per minute and at the same time to get the thought so as to be able to reproduce, by answering questions or otherwise, not less than ninety-five per cent of the ideas expressed in the selection." This shows us that we are on our way and travelling at a good rate of speed. But where are we going and where will we land? There is not much

value or satisfaction in knowing that we are on our way and travelling at a certain rate of speed, unless we know where and why we are going. Colvin, in a recent book review, says: "We have been so busy in recent years investigating and checking up results in the field of education that we have not had time or the disposition to take our bearings and find out whither we are going or why."

Unless guided by a sound philosophy of education there is a real danger that the scientific method, with its objective analysis and experimentation, will make education more complicated and more mechanical. We are apt to think of education as a manufacturing process with so many units of reading, geography, and arithmetic put into the machine and a finished product turned out — an educated individual. No matter how well selected and proportioned the mixture or raw material may be, or how well it is adapted to the capacity of the learner, unless worthy ideals, desires, and appreciations have been developed and transformed into spiritual and social forces all is unavailing. Robbins gives us a valuable word of warning when he says: "We should not permit ourselves to fall a prey to the suspicion that whatever cannot be measured and set down in mathematical terms must on that account be too vague to be worth serious effort."<sup>1</sup> Although we have no objective standards for measuring ideals, attitudes, and appreciations, it does not follow that efficient teaching should not be judged by the opportunity given for the formation and execution of them.

<sup>1</sup> Robbins, C. L. *The School as a Social Institution*, p. 399.



## SUPERVISION AND EDUCATIONAL AIMS

There are three major fields of study in education which should guide us in the solution of our problems: the science of education, the history of education, and the philosophy of education. The scientific study of education, including educational psychology and measurements, has placed educational research on a permanent basis. The scientific method has made it possible for us to know how well we have accomplished what we set out to do; how to classify our pupils properly; how to recognize individual differences, and how to treat the various groups. History of education shows us how teachers in the past have met and solved their problems, how their aims and ideals were realized. There are some problems and questions, however, which neither the science of education nor the history of education can solve or answer satisfactorily. Only a careful study and reflection of a pragmatic philosophy of education can give us an insight into such fundamental questions as: what should be the aims and ideals back of our efforts? What should present-day education attempt? What educational values should determine our subject matter, methods, and organization? The problem of aims and purposes is not a question of scientific discovery for, as Bode says, "It is not a question of finding out something that is already existent, but of finding out what it is that we should really desire to achieve by means of educational agencies."<sup>1</sup> According to Dewey: "Philosophy of education is not an external application of ready-made ideas to a system of

practice having a radically different origin and purpose; it is only an explicit formulation of the problems of the formation of right mental and moral habitudes in respect to the difficulties of contemporary social life."<sup>2</sup>

If the new and promising field of supervision is to make a positive contribution to education, then supervisors must pay more attention to fundamental issues and guiding principles as revealed in a pragmatic philosophy of education. And since teachers are having a larger part in determining the educational aims and ideals that the school should reflect, one of the major functions of supervision should be to provide larger opportunities for the study, reflection, and discussion of these fundamental issues among those actually engaged in the work of teaching. In order to be effective the aims and ideals must be deeply impressed upon teachers and made living realities, not mere abstractions of educational philosophers. The big task of the supervisor is to bring the teacher to a concrete realization of the meaning of education and of the significance of the subject matter she happens to be teaching. In this sense, the supervisor becomes a guide, philosopher, and friend. To him the "methods" are incidental to the great end which is to bring about the largest possible growth, in desirable ideals, knowledges, and skills, among both teachers and pupils. On the other hand, if supervision regards education mainly as a process of transmitting certain information, then the supervisor is concerned largely with devices, tricks of the trade, and common sense suggestions.

<sup>1</sup> Bode, B. H. *Fundamentals of Education*, p. 227.

<sup>2</sup> Dewey, J. *Democracy and Education*, p. 386.



In this sense he becomes a shop-foreman, a nuisance, speeding up production and eliminating waste. The higher type of supervision will recognize the fact that the development of aims calls for educational guidance. The other type of supervision will continue to treat the aim as fixed and the subject matter as though it automatically realized the aim.

#### THE REAL TASK OF SUPERVISION

The supervisor should help the teacher understand her subject matter as a means of interpreting life more fully. He should assist her in securing additional material which will add elements of reality and which will make the subject more interesting and inspiring. If he is fit for the job the supervisor can aid the teacher in the difficult task of weaving the subject to be taught in with various other things. This, if rightly done, is at the same time training in thinking. In order to get the application of the subject matter to various other things the pupil must reorganize his experience, which is thinking. Geography, history, or hygiene, for example, should be taught in such a way as to give new meanings to everyday life. After a proper study of hygiene and sanitation, such things as ash heaps, garbage cans, fly traps, drinking fountains, and spitting on the sidewalk have a new meaning for the pupil and his environment undergoes a change to that extent. The only knowledge of real value is that which illuminates the world in which we live, and thus creates for us a new world.

Some material may lead to a much

more significant widening of the social environment than others. The large amount of material available makes the selection of any subject or topic a matter of judging its relative value. As the principle of relative values is applied certain topics drop out or are given a secondary place. Such topics as cube root, duodecimals, and alligation in arithmetic have not been able to prove an adequate social worth. Several subjects at the present time are being called upon to justify their existence in the curriculum as required courses rather than electives. The duty of the supervisor in this connection should be to assist the teacher in determining these relative values so that the material may be taught with the proper perspective. According to Dewey: "The scheme of the curriculum must take account of the adaptation of studies to the needs of the existing community life; it must select with the intention of improving the life we live in common so that the future shall be better than the past. Moreover, the curriculum must be planned with reference to placing essentials first and refinements second. The things which are socially most fundamental, that is, which have to do with the experiences in which the widest group share, are essentials. The things which represent the needs of specialized groups and technical pursuits are secondary."<sup>1</sup>

While the curriculum is made up of materials which adults assume to be of permanent worth, there is the difficult problem of presenting them in such a way as to make the child realize their worth or value. According to the old

<sup>1</sup> Dewey, J. *Democracy and Education*, p. 225.



disciplinary conception of education it made little difference whether the learner appreciated the value of the material or not, while the new "soft pedagogy," emphasizing immediate pleasure, has tended to obscure the necessity of a feeling worth or a sense of values. Here is another difficult task for the supervisor, namely, to aid the teacher in presenting her material so that it appeals to the learner as having sufficient worth to demand serious effort. The child with his limited experience cannot have a very large appreciation of remote needs. It is necessary, therefore, that the materials first presented shall grow out of his childish feeling of value, and as he develops he must be taught to distinguish between immediate and somewhat remote interests or ends. According to Bode,<sup>1</sup> if the subject matter is to serve the purpose of education, "it must be such as to further or develop the capacities and tendencies of the pupil, which means that he must be able to 'see into' things so as to appreciate their bearings and significance in various directions." It is possible for a bare fact to become transformed into "a fact that is intimately related to a multitude of things to which we respond easily and naturally and we are thus furnished with an object or a direction for these responses. . . . When this occurs, the most commonplace objects may take on an absorbing interest, as when, to the eye of the geologist, chance scratches on the face of a cliff become transformed into a fascinating tale of glaciers and erosions in bygone ages. To work transformations of this kind

is the proper aim of education on the intellectual side."

Unless new facts are presented in such a way as to enrich one's past experiences and also the new facts, the process of learning becomes formal and disconnected from life. Since thinking is the reconstruction of our past experiences so as to make possible the assimilation of new facts, then learning without this process becomes mere memorizing. A pupil may recite or reproduce very accurately without any understanding of what he is saying. There is a prevalent tendency among teachers to overemphasize memory work and place more or less of a premium upon it. Perhaps it is not too sweeping a statement to make that a large percentage of the grades or marks which pupils receive in the public schools is based upon their ability to reproduce mere facts. As evidence of this we need only note, in the average recitation or examination, the large number of memory questions and the small proportion of thought-provoking questions. A pupil once criticized a certain teacher, saying, "I don't like Miss B—— because she never asks any questions that are in the book." As long as teachers have the conception of *mind* as a thing or entity located somewhere in the head, and subject matter as ready-made and complete, just so long will learning be memorizing and the efficiency of the pupil will be based upon his ability to reproduce what he has memorized. Supervisors need to impress upon teachers the fact that, unless the learner interprets new facts of social worth in such a way as to

<sup>1</sup> *Op. cit.*, p. 99.



relate them intimately to what he already knows, the process of education has failed to attain its proper aim. If education is really to function it must have a clear realization of the fundamental issues and a definite sense of direction. This is a real challenge to the new and promising field of supervision which should remember that "an undertaking which takes so many years of the young, so much of the wealth of the land, and which makes so vast a difference to the future is much too serious to be shaped by the dead hand of tradition,"<sup>1</sup> and, we may add, or by an age that is far too exclusively dominated by the concepts of mechanistic science.

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## TEACHER TRAINING

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"In the Sistine Chapel there is a masterpiece of Michael Angelo illustrating Adam's evolution to perfection." Adam lies upon the ground human in form only, dull of face, without aspiration, an incomplete creation. But as God's arm stretches toward him through the overhanging mists, and the Divine fingers touch the inert hand, the clod of earth becomes a man. The touch of God has transformed the lifeless mass into a living soul.

Thus is the teacher's work, like unto God's, divine. The pupil comes to him with faculties undeveloped, bare in intellect, dull of perception, slow of comprehension, low in aspiration; and the teacher is to lead him out into a new and more abundant life. This is the worth-while work of teaching, the value of which cannot be overestimated.

"Good teachers," said Dr. Philbrick, "and what next? There is no next." Another says, "In the making of wise

<sup>1</sup> Moore, E. C. *What Is Education?* p. 203.



and competent teachers, man finds the fulcrum of the lever that will lift the world." There is no question that upon the teacher, in our schools, rests, in a large measure, the future of our democracy and the welfare of our national life. Truly, the task of the teacher is a stupendous one, for which he should have long and wise training. It is a well-established principle that in order to teach a little, it is necessary to know much. We can lead no further than we ourselves travel; we can impart no more than we have; we can inspire to no greater heights than we ourselves have climbed.

Nothing reduces the profession of teaching to the level of the commonplace so much as the lack of a background of knowledge and of professional training of its members. In this unfitness of the teacher may be found one reason why the public has been so slow to recognize the profession. The good teacher must be scholarly. Good education and broad culture are needed, whether the grade be the twelfth or the kindergarten. This is especially true today when "general information is the possession of the masses." And in addition to scholarship, the teacher must have adequate professional training.

In this country, as early as 1825 (and we were years behind France and Germany in the teacher-training movement) Philip Lindsey, the acting president of the College of New Jersey, in an address at Princeton urged that, "Our country needs seminaries purposely to train up and qualify young men for the profession of teaching. We have our theological seminaries, our

medical and law schools, which receive the graduates of colleges and fit them for their respective professions, and whenever the profession of teaching shall be duly honored and appreciated, it is not doubted but that it will receive similar attention and be favored with equal advantages." He was ahead of his time. We are still waiting for the profession of teaching to be acknowledged, "duly honored, and appreciated." He was speaking in the language of today, when the subject of teacher-training is demanding the attention of normal school men and university leaders.

One reason of our waiting, according to a recent bulletin of the Carnegie Foundation, for the professional advancement of teaching is that "education has been much and, on the whole, reverently on our lips, but so little have we grasped its purport that the sole factor which can give it reality and meaning, namely, the teacher, is grossly ill equipped, ill rewarded, and lacking in distinction." That there has been a growing demand for trained teachers is true. This fact becomes very evident when we remember that the first normal school opened its doors but eighty-three years ago, and consider how these schools have multiplied, especially since 1860. And, today, every prominent university has founded a chair of education and several, Harvard among the number, have founded schools of education. But still, the weakest place in American education is caused by the lack of trained teachers. As a nation we have had almost no teacher-training plan any more than we have had a national system of education. In the



preparation of teachers we have done less than any other nation of our class.

Our fathers thought that anyone who knew a thing could teach it. This is far from the truth. We have heard of the "born teacher," but, "the born teacher is not born full-grown. Every desirable quality must be developed. Each latency must be awakened and made an actuality." These things can be accomplished only by a considerable period of right training.

Law, journalism, engineering, dentistry, even nursing are given many more years of training than are required of teachers. It is inconsistent to protect the other professions and to neglect the more important work of teaching. Law and medicine have been able to get upon the statute books of the State certain required qualifications for the practice of those professions. That is what is needed to place teaching, also, among the recognized professions. The State owes such action to itself for the preservation of our democracy, the permanency of which calls for the development of a competent body of instructors for the right type of citizenship.

The greatest lack of professional training has existed in our high schools. Too often the secondary teacher has completed his college course with no decided thought of becoming a teacher, and has taken up the work with no conception of its requirements as a difficult profession. In the report on *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education* we find the following: "Progress will depend very largely upon adequate professional training of teachers before and after entering upon service." In the

*Proposed New England Standards for Secondary Schools* we find: "Teachers of academic subjects beginning September, 1922, and thereafter, shall have professional training equivalent to twelve semester hours of education."

There has been much controversy between the normal schools and universities relative to teacher-training. The universities charge the normal schools with meager and insufficient academic instruction, which charge has much of truth in it; and the normal schools charge the universities, likewise with truth, with lack of professional instruction and facilities for practice teaching.

Normal schools have done the greatest work in teacher-training, yet their courses have been so short, and so largely adapted to training for the lower grades only, that they have not merited a place in the public esteem comparable to that of the college of liberal arts, of engineering, agriculture, law, or medicine.

It is clear that what is needed in teacher preparation is, first, a broad and liberal education; second, specialization along the lines which the teacher will follow; and third, adequate professional training to develop skill in teaching.

The training of teachers after they enter the service is no less important than the preliminary training. This continued training of the young teacher is a characteristic and an essential feature of the successful principal, for the future of the young teacher may be made or marred according to the opportunity for growth which is provided by the principal after the teacher's appointment. With a principal who



teaches in the grade, who directs and supervises the instruction, who inspires confidence so that the teacher feels that any question or difficulty can be discussed and solved with his help, the growth of the young teacher with professional aspirations is assured. McMurry says, "A principal's worth is to be judged primarily by his skill as a leader, as a teacher of teachers." There is no question that a principal's degree of success is manifest in the improvement which he enables his teachers to make.

The teacher should here be led to perceive purposes and relative values, helped to correct organization of methods and materials, and encouraged in initiative and self-reliance. This training should be based on the daily work observed in the classroom; it should lead the teacher to see the educational principles involved, and then to measure the work in the light of these principles.

A principal who recognizes the natural ability of the teacher, who knows what the previous training has been, and observes the attitude of the teacher toward the profession, will direct his line of action wisely, giving the kind of aid needed, at the time needed. He will also supplement his own training, by a discreet use of the assistance of able and experienced members of his corps. This training by the principal may be done in many ways:

1. By occasional teaching in the classrooms.
2. By an illustrative bit of teaching in the teachers' meeting.
3. By conducting the teachers' meeting as a forum for the discussion of classroom problems.
4. By having the teacher visit another teacher who is strong where the former is weak. We have seen this method successfully used without causing the least embarrassment.
5. By holding personal conferences on a particular exercise observed in the classroom.
6. By suggesting helpful reading, and by stimulating lines of study.
7. By constructive criticism showing a better method or policy. *Destructive* criticism has no place in any phase of teacher-training.
8. By giving credit for genuine merit, and for that alone.
9. By bringing the teacher to feel that his interest is not to be limited to his own classroom, but should also be felt throughout the school.
10. By creating a professional atmosphere throughout the district.
11. By maintaining high ideals of the profession.
12. By inspiring the teacher to become a real educator.
13. By helping the teacher to see the value in life of the day's work.
14. By encouraging the teacher to assist the principal in supervision in the line in which the teacher is successful. This will do much to eliminate the harmful fear with which the superior knowledge of supervision fills the young teacher.
15. By encouraging the teacher to exercise initiative in undertaking new projects.

The principal who has established the right relations with the teacher and pupils may take the class and demonstrate without its occurring to the class that he is doing it for the benefit of the teacher. We have seen specific instances where the weak teacher was strengthened and inspired to do better work by the principal's use of these methods.

When we faced a teacher shortage, it was rumored that to remedy the matter we must lower the standard. One might as well add water to the child's



milk to make more nourishment. With milk more plentiful, we might remedy this foolishness. But under any circumstances to add poor teachers to the force would be permanent folly. Let us rather *raise* the standard and raise the remuneration, until teaching is not only a recognized profession but also offers financial returns as good as equal ability receives in the other professions. Let us enlighten the public. We need Horace Manns to go not only up and down the state, but from the Atlantic to the Pacific, and from Canada to Mexico, proclaiming the importance of rightly trained teachers to the life of the nation.

There were money and brains to float liberty loans, to build a navy, to feed the allies, and to send two million soldiers to France — and all to fight the product of a false education. Has not

America the means — spiritual, mental, and financial — to protect itself against the possibility of repeating the fatal mistake of a false or defective education for her children?

We conclude with Bishop Spalding that, "When we Americans shall have learned to believe with all our hearts and with all the strength of irresistible conviction that a true educator is more important in every way, a more useful sort of man than a great railway king or a captain of industry, a grain buyer, or a stock manipulator, we shall have begun to make ourselves capable of perceiving the real scope of public school education."

And you, America!

Cast you the real reckoning for your present?

The lights and shadows of your future, good or evil?

To girlhood, boyhood, look, the teacher and the school.

## ENGLISH AN EXPRESSION OF THE ACTIVITIES OF EVERYDAY LIFE<sup>1</sup>

HUGHES MEARNS

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I have been asked to tell you in ten minutes how the children of the first six grades of the Lincoln School are taught to compose in English. That compels me to be dogmatic; and I do not care to be dogmatic about children.

Speaking dogmatically, then, I say that the children of our elementary grades might not understand you if you made inquiries concerning their "English composition." They would say, probably, that they had not come to

that study yet. Even the word "English," meaning a special branch of study in the grades, would have no significance in our lower grades. But if you asked, "Do you ever talk and write?" the answer would be immediate, "Oh, yes; yes, indeed, we do much of that."

"What do you talk and write about?" you might ask.

"About the things we do, the things we like, the things we think about," they would reply.

<sup>1</sup> A paper read before the New York Society for the Experimental Study of Education, November, 1922.



And if you ask, "How often do you write?" they would wonder at you as they answered, "Why, as often as we need to write, of course!"

In other words, our so-called English is not a branch of study, an isolated and obvious exercise at certain hours of the day, but, rather, something that comes out of the everyday activities of our children, something called forth by the actual needs of everyday expression.

In the spring, Sanders, of the first grade, is impelled to write to his teacher as follows: "Dear Miss Harrison: I made up a song and this is it. The birds have come again. The birds have come again." Erna, of the second grade, writes to the shop instructor: "We have made patterns for our doll beds. Will you bring us some wood?"

The boys of the third grade visit the ships and the docks and cannot rest until they have made a complete record of every delicious detail. The fourth grade write a group play on Christopher Columbus, and, of course, it must be put in good written form, or how can the actors learn their parts? But, in the meantime, the girls have been making cottage cheese in a new way and, naturally, the world and his wife should know about it *via* a mimeographed recipe. The sixth-grade class meetings, with their series of revolving secretaries, must have carefully preserved minutes, mustn't they?

These are suggestive types of prose, but through all the grades runs the insistent urge to present to the world the exciting incident, the strange scene, the imagined adventure.

More natural even than the prose is the form of expression that older per-

sons are accustomed to distinguish as poetry. After hearing Christina Rossetti, Ivria, of the first grade, writes:

What is red?  
The sunset's red  
When we go to bed.

Michael, boylike, sees another color:

What is black?  
The smoke is black  
From the chimney stack.

So on Valentine's Day Natalie writes feelingly, and in unheard-of language:

With love and a start  
I will give you my heart.

Out of a great number of poetic self-expressions I hope I shall have time in my ten minutes for a part of a collection that literally, like Triton blowing his wreathed horn, came up out of the sea. We called them *Songs of the River and Sea*. Here are three of them:

#### OFF AND AWAY

Off from the wharf with a good bit of speed,  
Hoist the great sails and away to the sea!  
Let the waves dash, and let the boat rock —  
What does it matter to me!

— Fred

#### A DREAM SHIP

Once a ship went by my window;  
It was a tiny sailboat.  
In a minute I was aboard  
Sailing . . .  
Sailing away!

— Winthrop

#### THE WORKER

I am a little boat  
That goes a-tug-a-tug-a-tug;  
I pull the great, big barges  
So slow . . . so slow . . . so slow.  
Though I have no great, white sails,  
I do my work each day,  
Right in the New York Bay!

— Peter



Then Thanksgiving Day brought forth its appropriate *Hymn of Praise*, done reverently by the third-grade class. Here is a bit of it:

We give thanks for the sky above and the earth below it, and birds that fly between earth and sky.

We give thanks for the cloth to make sails and the wood to make boats that sail on the waters.

We give thanks for the little streams that flow.

We give thanks for the tide that rises and lets us go out in our little boats.

Autumn finds the sixth grade writing of *The Battle of the Leaves*:

The knights in armor, red and gold,  
From the trees come tumbling,  
Fighting along the dusty road  
And o'er the meadows stumbling.

I will leave you with a poem by two rather exceptional fifth-grade girls:

#### SPRING AND SUMMER

On an evening, soft with mist,  
The moon shone on a silver brook;  
Summer came out from the shadowed glade  
And Spring came from the wood.  
Summer stepped across the brook,  
But Spring stood still.  
They stayed together for one happy night —  
Oh, the wonder of that night!

Night had gone, and with it Spring;  
Dawn found Summer all alone.

So much for the dogmatic paper that was read before the New York Society for the Experimental Study of Education. Obviously the members of so forthright an organization did not receive dogmatism without question; and it was in the rapid question and answer which followed that a chance was offered to say that of course we try to prepare the minds of these children for exactly the sort of responses that come from them so feelingly; that we plan for self-

expression and direct it with all the art we have in us; that no child left unassisted would naturally perform as we find them doing with us so "spontaneously." Further, we were able to make it clear that the selections of verse used were in most cases exceptional, particularly the one chosen to end the paper, a poem done by two girls whose wise childlikeness is almost uncanny. The point of the paper was not thereby disproved, however, that the minds of children may be guided without coercion to a high grade of self-expression.

Miss Nell C. Curtis has put the point of view of the teachers in the following notation to the galley proof:

"I judge that the purpose of this article is actually to help and encourage other schools and other teachers to put the teaching of English composition on this common-sense basis. I think you have made quite clear at the beginning that the content of our composition is just an expression related to everyday things; but I do think that about some parts of the paper there is an exaggeration which — I know from bitter experience as a young teacher — is discouraging rather than the reverse. For instance, to say that our children 'cannot rest until they have made a complete record' is misleading. We have to build up these attitudes of 'cannot-restness' to put into written form the records of our trips, a 'record book,' a 'boat book,' an opportunity to present to others who do not know, as in an assembly. Children like to write, but there is no 'inner urge' to write about such things just for the sake of writing. In that kind of writing, there is always some impelling motive.

"Now, when it comes to expression relating to 'the exciting incident, the strange scene,' and the like, then you have expression for expression's sake; but the urge is not, as you say, 'to present to the world' anything at all; they do it just for the fun of it at the time. And when children make poems, the inner urge to express is really the thing; but that does not come about unless they have had vivid sense images which the



situation in the school makes them love and wish to recall. Couldn't just a word be said to make that clear? It is terribly discouraging to teachers to read these things done by children unless they get an inkling of how it is brought about.

"And then, is that last poem characteristic enough of fifth grade to have it go out — would

we even want it to be? Could you not find another equally lovely one? But even then if you choose an unusual one, should not some comment be made to that effect? Perhaps, with continued freedom and inspiration for children, the now unusual may come in time to be characteristic."

## TYPES OF PROJECTS AND THEIR TECHNIQUE<sup>1</sup>

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In the monograph already referred to, Professor Kilpatrick classifies projects as follows: type 1, where the purpose is to embody some idea or plan in external form, as building a boat, writing a letter, presenting a play; type 2, where the purpose is to enjoy some (esthetic) experience, as listening to a story, hearing a symphony, appreciating a picture; type 3, where the purpose is to straighten out some intellectual difficulty, to solve some problem, as to find out whether or not dew falls, to ascertain how New York outgrew Philadelphia; type 4, where the purpose is to obtain some item or degree of skill or knowledge, as learning to write grade 14 on the Thorndike Scale, learning the irregular verbs in French. He remarks that "it is at once evident that these groupings more or less overlap and that one type may be used as means to another." In his contribution to a symposium on "Dangers and Difficulties of the Project Method and How to Overcome Them," at Teachers College in March, 1921, he enlarged upon the description of these types and made one notable extension. He omitted from

type 2 the parenthetical "esthetic" and included under this head purposeful enjoying or appropriation of experiences of all sorts wherein the person is a spectator rather than an actor.

Mention of this classification calls to mind the point made in the first of this series of articles,<sup>2</sup> namely, that there are two schools of thought with regard to the project idea and, for that matter, with regard to method in general. One group tends to limit the concept to one particular type of activity, such as planning and doing something "practical," though there seems to be no agreement as to which sort of activity shall be selected. The other group seeks a unifying conception, a philosophy of method, and so far as it uses the term project at all, applies it in a broad and somewhat inclusive sense. No one, I believe, uses the term Project Method to cover every possible or desirable kind of learning or of teaching. Much learning is obviously the result of circumstances which the learner did not and perhaps could not in any way control. Teachers, it is freely admitted, also should at times coerce, not priding

<sup>1</sup> All rights reserved by the author.

<sup>2</sup> See this JOURNAL for September, 1922.



themselves, of course, on the amount of compelling they do or their mastery of the technique of it.

Accepting the view that "projects may present every variety that purposes present in life,"<sup>1</sup> we may find in the proposed classification several useful suggestions. "Types of projects" suggests the somewhat similar concepts, types of learning and types of teaching, and invites us to apply as far as may be appropriate the principles associated with both.

#### TYPES OF PROJECTS AND TYPES OF LEARNING

We notice, in the first place, that the types of projects named correspond in a measure with the types of learning distinguished by some recent writers on educational psychology and principles of teaching. To attempt "to embody an idea or an aspiration in material form" is apparently synonymous with seeking expression or, better, striving to communicate to others notions and feelings which you yourself have experienced. Type I, then, is found in the realm of the arts, fine and industrial. Wherever and however the individual or the group does actually purpose to convey certain impressions, to make a certain appeal, through any appropriate medium, be it color, sound, movement, wood, clay, marble, or what not, there a project is on foot, and so far as anyone possessed of the requisite knowledge or skill guides the artist or artists in finding a *motif*, in choosing the medium, obtaining the materials, designing the object, executing it, and applying criteria of excellence to the

work while it is in progress or when it is completed, that person is a teacher. To the degree that he seeks to help the workers realize their purposes instead of merely imposing his own, he may be called a project teacher.

The constructive type of project was well placed first. It perfectly illustrates the whole conception. I am at this moment engaged in such a project. Some months ago I resolved to present to the readers of this JOURNAL a series of articles on method. I judged that the majority of my readers would care most for further exposition and application of the Project Method. What precisely should I try to accomplish by means of my series and how should I adapt it to my audience as I conceived it? Next came the question of topics and the ground to be covered under each. Specifications for the entire series were written out and have been frequently referred to, though departed from in many particulars. From month to month the manuscripts are written and revised. All the while the writer asks himself, "Am I actually getting the idea over? Will this be clear or that sufficiently emphatic to make a lasting impression?" Occasionally some reader makes a suggestion or offers a word of encouragement. Ultimately the task will be completed and the writer will look back over the whole with critical eye, pleased perhaps with this but offended with that.

This is fairly typical of all composition, whether in language or otherwise. The idea and its expression, usually with reference to the other who is to read, hear, or see, these are the chief

<sup>1</sup> Kilpatrick, *The Project Method*, p. 5.



factors. Some little children were asked to listen to a bit of music. What movements would they think appropriate? They made up a variety of dance steps, pleased both to invent and to have friendly eyes bent upon their inventions. Other pupils wrote music for certain words, or words for music. A high school class made plans for decorating the auditorium. Another produced a handbook for prospective settlers in their suburb. An entertainment for the mothers, an exhibit in geography, toys for a children's hospital, a school garden, poems for Christmas, boxes for the birds, clean alleys, these are representative of the unending variety of constructive projects which pupils have executed. The measure of their project quality was, of course, *the degree to which the children actually participated in them*. All subjects of study and all extra-curricular activities as well offer a profusion of occasions for dynamic expression. The puzzle is not to find projects, but to decide which are most worth while.

Enjoyment of the natural environment or of what others are doing may also be planned. Very often it is planned, must be planned. One does not find himself in the Yosemite by accident. He goes there, at much expense of time and energy it may be. No one who has ever fought his way to a ticket for the opera in New York will regard the undertaking lightly. In truth, while much worthy pleasure comes unsought, the wise man is he who *chooses* his pleasures and takes the steps necessary to realize them. Cer-

tainly he reserves the right to enjoy or turn away. He is not bound to enjoy.

This type of project is so often closely related to others, as end to which they are means, and it seems in itself to offer so little room for "teaching," that not a few profess to be offended by such an extension of the meaning of the term. I well remember how one serious-minded but unimaginative pedagogue once called me to order for using the expression, "teaching poetry to little children." "What," he exclaimed, "is there to teach?" A beginner once solved a similar problem in startling fashion. She directed a class of sixth-grade pupils to read Warner's *A-Hunting of the Deer* in these memorable words, "Find out all the ways there are to kill a deer."

If teaching is indeed organizing situations so as to call out desirable responses and make them satisfying,<sup>1</sup> then it is possible to teach appreciation. "To appreciate," says the Standard Dictionary, "is to be sensitive to and sensible of the inherent worth and value of a thing." Certainly one may help another to discover and prize values to which he might otherwise remain insensitive. The search may, on the learner's part, be both willing and conscious.

A fifth-grade teacher presented Hogg's *A Boy's Song* to her class.<sup>2</sup> First she called attention to the title. "What," said she, "do you think a boy is going to sing about?" (Business of pupils' offering various suggestions.) "Let us read the song and find out what he did sing about." (Teacher

<sup>1</sup> Thorndike's phrase.

<sup>2</sup> Reported in *Empirical Studies in School Reading*, by James F. Hosis, pp. 102-108.

reads entire poem aloud.) Then follows a conversation in which the idealized experience of the poem is developed and realized, the children reading the stanzas silently as the study proceeds. Then ensues a second oral reading of the entire poem, this time by a pupil, each child trying to "see" all the places mentioned and imagine the fun of visiting them. Finally the class hour closes with expressions of preference by the pupils for the stanzas which they like best and which might well be known by heart.

This exercise undoubtedly gave much real joy to the pupils. They enjoyed the poem as an expression of potential experience — they lived it over again. The thoughtful pleasure which was afforded was undoubtedly much like that the author intended. Yet at no time was attention directed to the author's technique as in itself something to be observed and admired. The pupils' experience was enlarged in two ways: they read a poem in a good way and they rambled "up the river and o'er the lea." This was learning.

Type 3 is problem-solving. This is theoretically a purely intellectual type but in practice almost invariably involves the handling of concrete means, using graphic or other expression, or proceeding to some practical use, at least in further problem-solving. It is doubtful whether any activity rightly called a project is wholly without a problem element. Choice must be made and choice means that a problem is being faced. When the goal in view is the truth rather than some practical or emotional outcome, the endeavor may well be called merely problem-solving.

There is, as everyone knows, an extensive literature on "problem attack" and "training in thinking." Learning by problem-solving and learning to solve problems have both been much emphasized in our best current educational writing. The chief reason for identifying them with the project idea is, first, because it does embrace them, and, second, because it tends toward a fresh and possibly more vital interpretation.

As a matter of fact a vast number of so-called problems were never problems to the pupils who worked at them. They were merely *stated* problems, not problems felt as real occasions for effort at adjustment in any vital sense whatever. Efforts at solution were not due to an intellectual interest but to a desire to do the assignment and merit the teacher's approval. Moreover, in spite of the excellent books on how to study that have been provided, few teachers as yet give much effective training in methods of work. All investigators agree that the teacher, generally speaking, either asks 'em something or tells 'em something most of the time.

Now the Project Method professes to favor new units of study, new rôles on the part of both teacher and pupils, and new standards of judgment as to success or failure. In this lies the hope that problem-solving may become a more lifelike thing, with correspondingly greater benefits. Not the least of these will be greater ability to perceive and select those problems whose solution is most worth while. In a regimen wherein the students' problems are all selected and presented by teacher or



textbook, little or no place is reserved for this. The Project Method demands that the student have large opportunity to practice finding and stating problems for himself.

The fourth of the proposed list of types remains. This may be called the achievement type, though at the risk of confusing it with type I, the constructive type, defined above. Ability to do something according to a certain standard of excellence seems to be the chief mark. One knows, or he doesn't; he can make change correctly or he can not; or we may say he really adopts the Roosevelt motto of the strenuous life and works every day with all his might. In any realm of human endeavor in which a standard of attainment may be set up, there projects of this sort may be found.

The notion has far-reaching implications. It goes far to meet the objections of those who profess to see in the project movement a narrow program and a tendency to lack of "thoroughness." On the other hand, as in the case of problem-solving, there is grave danger of our having merely the old formality with a new name. Worst of all, perhaps, is the possibility of our enlisting the energies of the pupils to help us succeed with much educational "stuff" which should have gone to the junk heap long ago and of late has seemed on the point of landing there.

What the pupils should be learning is, however, a problem of the curriculum, not primarily a problem of method. In any case it will be long, if ever, before all learning is instrumental. Intellectual activity and physical activity, moreover, are natively grateful and

need no extraneous motive. Provided that the achievement be in fact worth while, we need assign no ignoble place to a project which has only some form of knowledge, skill, or habit as its goal.

#### TYPES OF TEACHING

As with types of learning so with types of teaching, useful analogies and applications appear when the types of projects are reviewed. So far as lessons for information, for habituation, for skill, for problem-solving, and for appreciation have squared with the psychology of learning, they have tended to illustrate elements of teaching likely to be useful in the Project Method. The chief possibilities of improvement reside, first, in a better analysis of the abilities to be exercised — the lines of growth, that is to say — and, second, in provision for fuller and more effective participation by the pupils.

Among the chief responsibilities of the teacher in constructive activities is to provide opportunity favorable to invention, to design, and to choice of materials. Ready-made models and blueprints will obviously be relegated. Pupils will be stimulated to imagine and plan for themselves. They will be shown how to proceed and then given freedom to try, try again, the teacher meanwhile calling attention to success or failure and if possible to the reason of it. He will, of course, not press for results more perfect than the pupils' development and sense of fitness justify.

In achievement projects the teacher must usually be largely the authority as to what constitutes the goal, what the different degrees of excellence are, and must see that each worker has it —

or them — in mind. He must guide the practice, establish good conditions for it, and encourage the faint-hearted. He must also apply the appropriate tests, or at least supervise their application. Granted that the objective measures we have really measure the achievements we wish the pupils to strive for, they are evidently invaluable allies in this relation. As matters stand at present, teacher and pupils must supplement these with many informal tests of their own devising. The essential principle is that the pupils should know what they are to learn, how they must go about it, and how far they have progressed.

As already indicated, the pupils themselves should take a hand in discovering, choosing, and defining their problems. The teachers will make sure they grasp the issue and see something of what it involves. He will insure adequate data, stand as the last-ditch opponent of judgment, and see to it that the conclusion is properly checked. Knowing that the methods of problem-solving are worth more to the pupils than any conclusion or group of conclusions to be arrived at, he will cause the pupils to identify the procedures they use and appreciate their values.

Where enjoyment or appreciation is the chief aim, the teacher will arouse

expectancy, revive the pertinent associations, and insure adequate *realization* of the experience which the object provides. If he seeks to build up ideals, he will call for judgment of the appropriate values, whether logical, esthetic, moral, or practical. He will not often attempt to convey ideals as abstract truth.

#### BIBLIOGRAPHICAL NOTE

The best exposition of types of projects is that by Professor Kilpatrick in the *Teachers College Record* for September, 1921. Types of learning are well set forth in Thorndike's *Principles of Teaching*, Chapters 8 to 14, and Parker's *Methods of Teaching in High School*, Chapter 5. More recent treatments will be found in Pyle's *The Psychology of Learning*; Norsworthy and Whitley's *The Psychology of Childhood*, Chapters 8, 9, 10, and 13; Freeman's *How Children Learn*, Chapters 8 to 11; Woodworth's *Psychology*, Chapters 13, 14, 17, and 18; and Betts' *Classroom Method and Management*, Chapters 4 to 6. *Types of Teaching* is the title of a book by Miss Earhart. Other references on this topic are Strayer and Norsworthy's *How to Teach*, Chapters 4, 5, 7, 8, 11, and 13; Parker's *Methods of Teaching in High School*, Chapters 6 to 11; and Parker's *Types of Elementary Teaching and Learning*.



# THE LAWRENCE PLAN FOR EDUCATION IN CITIZENSHIP

## V. Changes in Method

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### THE PROJECT AS A MEANS OF TEACHING CITIZENSHIP

The school that prepares for life must use the same methods of work as are commonly used in life, and the teachers who undertake the task of making efficient and worthy citizens of a democracy must themselves be serious students of the social situation of which the school is a part. They need to study how successful people work, how they feel toward their work, what motives lead them on, and what rewards are most satisfying to them.

Men and women who do the constructive, progressive work of the world work largely by means of projects. They want to accomplish some concrete unit of work for themselves or for the community. They have a definite purpose, they plan their procedure, they carry out their plans with necessary changes, and they themselves know in what degree they have succeeded in doing the thing they started out to do. In whatever way they succeed or fail they look for the reason in their method of work, and they profit by it in the next project that they undertake.

How often are we able to say this of the way children work in school? Their tasks are for the most part teacher-imposed; the procedure is teacher-planned or proceeds from page to page; the test of their success is the fact examination or the approval or disap-

proval of the teacher. They have not been conscious of a method of work and therefore cannot account for success or failure and profit by their mistakes.

The carrying on of projects in the Oliver School has given the children a new way of working of which they are conscious. These projects arise from the needs of the school and the community, from children's individual needs and curiosities and class discussions.

The carrying on of projects is education in citizenship because children are constantly called upon to exercise those qualities that democracy demands. They must coöperate with the members of their group. They must be personally responsible, they must think straight, they must be able to reach conclusions and express opinions and to use correct methods of work. These are some of the qualities that citizens for democracy need and which the school must establish.

### THE PART OF THE TEACHER IN PROJECT TEACHING

It is the part of the teacher to create a school environment of many-sided interests. Children and teachers both feel that school work is not confined to textbooks, that whatever is vital to the welfare and happiness of children is worthy of its share of school time. It is the part of the teacher to keep in

close touch with the home, community, and world interest, to use these interests either as a basis of school work or as a point of departure. Once these interests are aroused and children begin to work whole-heartedly, a firm foundation is laid for project work. It then becomes the part of the teacher to help children choose worthy projects; to see that projects undertaken are completed; to see that children form correct habits of work and that summaries and drills are given when necessary. Project work lessens the amount of drill but by no means eliminates it.

It is the part of the teacher in the Oliver School to help children be of real assistance in the community and in their homes by stimulating home gardens, family and personal budgets, campaigns to assist in personal and public health, and other home or community projects. This means that the course of study, instead of being a dead outline handed down from generation to generation, is gradually becoming a series of vital issues or lines of investigation which are of current interest to children and to the community and which have their roots in the solid body of facts usually called the curriculum.

#### THE RESULTS OF PROJECT TEACHING

1. It is stimulating children to do whole-hearted, purposive work.
2. It is gradually eliminating useless material from the curriculum.
3. It is enriching the curriculum.
4. It is making use of present life interests.
5. It is making the course of study a living, changing set of projects and

problems which grow out of the children's own interest.

6. It is making the administration subordinate to the best interests of children.

#### THE TESTS OF PROJECT TEACHING

1. The problem or project comes from the children or is whole-heartedly accepted by them.
2. The children do the planning with the guidance and stimulation of the teacher.
3. The children are personally responsible for carrying out their plans.
4. They are able to judge the success of their work.
5. They are consciously learning correct methods of work.
6. They are increasingly able to set worthy problems or projects for study or investigation.

#### PROJECT WORK IN HISTORY, CIVICS, AND GEOGRAPHY

The work in history, civics, and geography is gradually shaping itself around certain lines of investigation that are of most vital interest to these children of the Oliver School whose parents are foreign born and most of whom work in the mills of Lawrence.

#### SETTING THE PROBLEMS

Ask the fifth grade in this school which continent they would like to study first and with shining eyes they will choose Europe almost unanimously; then ask them which country in Europe they would like to study, and as one would expect the Italians choose Italy, the Russians, Russia, and the Greeks, Greece. Two plans of procedure may



follow: either majority rule, in which the whole class will study the country that is most popular, or they may divide into groups and each group carry on its own line of investigation. In either case the first question for the children to decide is: what do we want to know about this country? Or, what should we as intelligent boys and girls know about this country? This opportunity to define their own problems helps the children to realize that the study of any subject is not the study of their text from page to page, but that it is the solution of problems or the answers to questions in which they are interested. These questions arise at various times, under varying circumstances. They should be genuine questions, typically childish but fruitful of discussion and of significance to the children. There is real value in allowing the children to think of all the interesting things they would like to know about a subject even if very few of the questions are chosen for investigation.

The teachers of the Oliver School are cultivating in children this ability to define their difficulties, to be curious about things, to keep on hand many unanswered questions. It gives motive to general reading, creates a many-sided interest, and develops an intelligent spirit of inquiry. It is a wise and skillful teacher who so directs a discussion that children want to ask intelligent and significant questions. Strange as it may seem, children must be taught to ask questions in school. They have a habit of asking them at home, but our school procedure has deprived them of this most valuable means of getting an education — the ever-ready question.

They must be taught that to ask a question that strikes at the root of a difficulty may be a far keener bit of thinking than to answer a question asked by another. The teacher who succeeds in creating such a healthy school atmosphere that children feel perfectly free to say that they do not understand, or that they want to know more about a subject, has done a more valuable thing than if she had taught a multitude of facts.

In almost every class discussion children ask questions that may be used as a basis for further investigation. When these questions arise they are noted on the board or in notebooks. The teacher herself suggests interesting and worthwhile things to find out and to do. The following extracts from lessons show how questions arise quite naturally during the class discussion:

#### SETTING THE PROBLEM IN HISTORY GRADE V

*Teacher.* And the big thing to remember about the Revolutionary War is what?

*Pupil.* They wanted to be independent.

*Teacher.* Yes, the American people wanted to be independent.

*Pupil.* What does the word "revolutionary" mean?

*Teacher.* We might take that for tomorrow's lesson. Now we would like to get some other questions for tomorrow's lesson. Take Fred's question for one. (Teacher writes questions on board as given by pupils.)

Now I want some good questions — something that you really want to know for tomorrow.

*Pupil.* Where was the first battle fought?

*Teacher.* That's good.

What would you like to know, Susie?

*Pupil.* I would like to know if the other countries helped the Americans when they were in war like we helped France and sent out men to France when they had the war?

*Teacher.* Isn't that a fine question?

What would you like to know?

*Pupil.* I wonder what does "Independence of Declaration" mean?

*Teacher.* I think you mean "Declaration of Independence," don't you?

Any other questions?

*Pupil.* I want to know about Paul Revere's ride.

*Pupil.* How was the war ended?

*Teacher.* Do you think we will get over to the end in tomorrow's lesson? If not, we will save that question for another lesson.

#### SETTING THE PROBLEM IN GEOGRAPHY GRADE VI

*Pupil.* I chose this industry because I thought that we could get some information from the book which tells why there is a scarcity of sugar sometimes.

*Pupil.* Do you know why?

*Pupil.* No, Veto.

*Pupil.* It does not tell in our geographies, does it?

*Pupil.* It might tell something.

*Pupil.* I don't think we would have had a scarcity of sugar if we did not send it to foreign countries in the war.

*Pupil.* How is it that there is a scarcity of sugar this year?

*Pupil.* We had to keep sending it over for a long while to keep the soldiers getting sugar until they came back to this country.

*Pupil.* But my brother was a soldier and he told me that they used condensed milk in their coffee and didn't use sugar.

*Teacher.* Can you think of a problem that we have left from this lesson for tomorrow?

*Pupil.* We have got to look up — Why we have had a scarcity of sugar now and in the past.

#### SETTING THE PROBLEM IN CIVICS GRADE VIII

*Teacher.* Is that point clear to everyone? If so, what else does labor want?

*Pupil.* Labor wants collective bargaining.

*Pupil.* I don't quite understand what collective bargaining means.

*Teacher.* Can anyone explain what collective bargaining means?

*Pupil.* I should think the one that suggested it might know what it means.

*Pupil.* Collective bargaining means when Labor and Capital meet together and talk it over.

*Teacher.* Just a minute. That shows that Clarence does not know what collective bargaining means. Just put "Collective bargaining means ———" and look it up for tomorrow's work.

#### OTHER TYPICAL PROBLEMS

The children of a fifth grade were asked to tell how they got interesting problems to study. The following is a stenographic report of some of their answers.

*Pupil.* We were talking about the Pilgrims. One of the boys said the Pilgrims did not pay anything to educate their children. We do not even now pay the School Committee to educate our children. I studied it up and it said we had to pay taxes to educate our children. The other boy began to argue and one of the boys said we could go to the City Hall and find out. Our problem was: "What is taxation, and what are taxes for?"

*Pupil.* Sometimes we are eating and we would like to know where our food comes from.

*Pupil.* Sometimes when we are interested in things that we don't know about, such as how paper is made, and shoes, we form a committee of about four, two girls and two boys, and we go to the factories and we investigate.

*Pupil.* A boy in our room told about the scarcity of water and he said it was because the Merrimac was very dry. And some one answered, "Do we get the water directly from the Merrimac River?" and we set that as our problem.

*Pupil.* We chose limestone and cement because when we talked about our parents' occupations one of the boys studied up his father's and his father was a mason and his father uses limestone and cement when he makes plaster and so we thought we would like to know how limestone and cement are made.

These children are conscious of the way their problems arise; they consider them their own problems, not the teacher's. The fact that they so



frequently say "we would like to know," "we are interested in," "we would like to solve" shows that the work is motivated, purposive work. It may be noted here that such questions do not arise out of formal schoolroom situations. They arise when children feel free to express themselves, to ask questions, and to propose interesting things to do. This is the spirit of the socialized school.

When questions do not arise out of a discussion, time is taken to develop them with the class. Children are given the privilege of stating what they would most like to know about a subject. Children and teacher together discuss the scope and the significance of the questions asked and the order in which they should be studied and discussed. The teachers are not discouraged if children do not ask the most important questions about the subject. Naturally they may not. They will ask the questions that in some way come within their experience. The teachers of the Oliver School are especially careful to keep the work honest. Children are encouraged to ask questions that they really want to know and not ones which they think will please the teacher.

The following questions were asked by different children in a fifth grade in response to the question: What would you most like to know about Belgium?

1. Who rules in Belgium now? Is he good to his people?
2. Are there any mills in Belgium?
3. How did Belgium help to win the war?
4. Are the poor people suffering in Belgium?
5. Why did the Germans go through Belgium?
6. Do they make any silk there?
7. Have they any shoe manufacturing there?
8. Are there any oil wells?

9. Do they have any grapevines and olive oil?
10. Have they any beautiful palaces like France has?
11. Have they any good harbors?
12. Are there schools and colleges in Belgium?
13. I think we ought to know something about the climate.
14. Did Belgium use farms for battlefields?
15. Do they have any artists like those in France?
16. Are there any beautiful cities in such a small country?

The children discuss these questions, organize them, omit some, and supplement others, at the suggestion of the teacher. They are now ready to plan how they will go about their work.

#### PLANNING THE PROCEDURE

After the children have decided on their problem or projects, they plan their procedure. They discuss all possible sources of information, who will get this information, whether they will work as a class or in committees, who will make special reports and exhibits. In short, they become conscious of their method of work. They take on responsibilities which will require the exercise of initiative, coöperation, fair play, and self-control.

They know that information lies not alone in their texts, but in their own past experience, actual observation, their homes, library, newspapers, magazines, maps, and pictures. In one fifth grade observed, children named many sources of information and had to be reminded that their own text would help them. In using their texts they are not confined to one page or a section of the book, but by using the index and table of contents they refer to any portion that will aid them.

Having set their problems and planned their procedure, children take ample time for study and preparation. Sometimes several days have been profitably spent before any class discussion takes place. This gives the children a chance to become saturated in the subject. They talk it over among themselves, committees meet and discuss their work, others get concrete material for exhibit. There is an atmosphere of busy preparation and happy anticipation of the time when they can pool their findings, exchange their ideas, and test out their theories. As a result of their discussion they are able to judge in what measure their investigation was successful. This is the spirit of the socialized school.

#### AN ARITHMETIC PROJECT — GRADE VIII

One of the most interesting and profitable projects this year was carried on by the children in an eighth grade in arithmetic. They started the year's work by making personal budgets, allowing \$11.00 per week as their possible earning power. After a great deal of discussion and investigation they each decided on a budget, allowing a certain amount for board and room, clothing, savings, health, charity, laundry, personal appearance, art, and spending money. When the budget was carefully figured in per cents and graphed, they planned how they could best invest their savings.

The following means of investing money were named, and each was investigated at some length for the purpose of getting children interested in safe investments, and getting them acquainted with the advantages and disadvantages

of each: savings banks, coöperative banks, vacation clubs, Christmas clubs, insurance, real estate.

When they studied real estate they pretended to invest their budget savings in a three-tenement house which they had seen advertised in the paper for \$8,000. The terms were \$1,000 down and the remainder in mortgages. They went to a Trust Company and found that they could borrow \$5,000 at 6% by giving a first mortgage. Then they borrowed \$2,500 at 7% from a wealthy friend and gave a second mortgage. They computed the income and the expenses of the house in order to find the per cent of gain that they would make on the property. This led them to an investigation of taxes, repairs, water bills, interest on mortgages, and insurance. It was a very concrete, vital problem to these children, who either live in tenements or whose fathers own tenements.

#### THE SOCIALIZED RECITATION AS A MEANS OF TEACHING CITIZENSHIP

The socialized recitation in the Oliver School is the result of a changed classroom spirit and purpose. Where the spirit and purpose have not changed, the socialized recitation has not followed.

##### 1. *What is the socialized recitation?*

The socialized recitation is not a "pupil-teacher" exercise. It is not a form learned by children and used automatically. It is a class procedure in which the social spirit manifests itself among the group that have come together for a common purpose. Whenever possible the children are seated



facing each other, with the teacher taking her place as one of the group, not separate and apart from it. The purpose of the group is felt by all, not by the teacher alone, as was frequently the case in formal recitations.

All enter whole-heartedly into the work. Each is responsible for contributing something to the success of the period. All exchange ideas naturally and freely, speaking to each other in friendly, conversational voices. Children feel free to ask questions of each other as well as of the teacher, to challenge and supplement the thought of others and to use the board, illustrative material, texts, and maps whenever necessary. The period is a coöperative effort to accomplish a purpose for which all feel responsible. The accomplishment of this purpose sets the standard of conduct. They need to exercise self-control, initiative, personal responsibility, and coöperation, just as does any social group. This is education in citizenship. It should be a part — and the larger part — of every school exercise.

2. *What is the part of the teacher in the socialized recitation?*

A good leader is essential to the success of any group working together. This leader in the socialized recitation is always, either directly or indirectly, the teacher. She does the minimum of work and gets the maximum of thinking and initiating from the group. She does what every good leader is expected to do — keeps the discussion to the point, sees that it is profitable, sees that opportunities for contributing are equal, and that courtesy and fair play are

observed. The teacher stimulates and guides child activity and child thinking. Any one observing would think that she is distinctly in the background because she has learned the value of silence, but she holds herself ever ready to ask a question, to redirect the thought, to call on some child who is not responding, or to ask for a summary. She may say very little but she says just the little that is necessary to keep the discussion worth while.

3. *What are the tests of the socialized recitation?*

1. Do children have a free, happy, interested spirit?
2. Do they feel that the problem or project is their own?
3. Do they do most of the work and bear most of the responsibility?
4. Do they think clearly in discussions?
5. Do they show initiative by asking worth-while questions, suggesting better ways of doing things, volunteering to give information, or to use the map and illustrative material?
6. Does each child feel personally responsible for contributing something to the welfare of the group?
7. Do they speak to each other naturally and courteously?
8. Are they experiencing self-control in making contributions? In other words, are they orderly but not formal?
9. Is the teacher a sympathetic leader, ever ready to guide, stimulate, advise and contribute, treating children with the same consideration and courtesy that she expects from them?
10. Is it evident that the main purpose of the period is to establish correct

habits of thinking, feeling, and acting, rather than to teach facts?

4. *What do children in the Oliver School think of the socialized recitation?*

The following quotations were taken from replies which they made to the question: "How do you like this new way of working?"

I like the socialized recitation because we can help one another. It helps us to know each other's ideas. If there is a question in our minds

that we don't know we can most always find out by the socialized recitation. In the old way of reciting one cannot tell his thoughts.

We get a chance to give our opinions on all subjects.

It is enjoyable, therefore making me happier.

I prefer the socialized recitation because not only does the teacher govern but the pupils share the work with her.

I come to school gladly now because the prospect of an interesting lesson urges me.

Nowadays the pupil can proudly say that he has a share in everything that goes on in school.

## CONDITIONED IN HISTORY

CARRIE A. RITTER

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"I have O. K'd credits for readings to remove conditions in history until I am tired of it. What's the matter with history anyway?" I asked of my superior in the educational work.

We allow a certain number of credits for a selected course of readings to remove conditions in history for entrance to the training class. Should reading five or six volumes be equivalent to passing an academic examination in history? And why should there be more failures in history than in other subjects?

These books may cover certain portions of American history, but think of the events missed, though the readings be ever so carefully selected. I thoroughly believe in collateral reading, especially of historical fiction and anecdotes based on authentic facts.

Why this trouble about history? I have a lurking suspicion that it lies

with the teachers of history, or rather with generations of teachers who have not appreciated the value of historic influence nor understood how to teach it, so they in turn are imparting no enthusiasm to their pupils. Neither history nor geography is a real thing to many people, — it is just something "in a book." You would think these two subjects, so closely akin, would be the most fascinating that a pupil could study.

"You *have* to learn these facts and dates," is the creed. So you do, but furbished up by some interesting anecdotes and descriptions, they become attractive and stick in the mind. History, moreover, does not want to be learned by rote, with too much attention to detail and not enough grasp on the broad influence of the subject or the effect of a measure upon public life.



I have had considerable personal experience with history work both as a student and as a teacher. As a child I was much attracted by the pictures and descriptions of the manners and personalities of the Indians in the school histories which my older sister had possessed, and had read them long before studying history in school. Then came that first term in the classroom, when the teacher insisted we must learn "Lossing word for word." Did you ever try it? Not being strong on memorizing, preferring to condense and tell in my own way, I was a horrible failure. The dates of discoveries were not so bad, and those lists have stuck pretty well through the years. Settlements were different; the three that stand out now are the stories of Mrs. Dustin, the Charter Oak, and the regicides — oh, yes, the Pilgrims and the Salem witches, but my knowledge of the first came from some articles in the *Chatterbox* (an English publication) and the second from reading Holland's *Bay Path*.

Then we went into another class; that teacher left this world a few weeks ago, but her influence as a teacher, especially in history, will go down through generations of those who teach. Many a bit of history lived for us in her vivid way of teaching it, — not all battles either, but the simple life of the people, the spinning, weaving, farming, hunting, the Puritan church service. Especially I remember the description in Barnes' history of Dutch customs; of the keeping of Christmas, which our Puritan ancestors did not favor since it harked back to Old England and their persecutions by the established church;

of the story of the old Dutch kitchen with the making of cakes and crullers, a custom brought down to our day. By the way, they are "crullers" still in Albany, New York, though they may be "fried cakes" and "doughnuts" elsewhere in the United States.

You cannot teach history out of one book. Several are needed for everyday use besides the extra reference books and whatever magazine articles can be obtained, and *pictures* — any quantity of them. The history must be made real to the student whether in grammar grades, high school, or training class. There used to be an English history book that gave at the end of each reign the developments in domestic arts, literature, and science during that period; it has seemed to me that this method binds the whole life of a country together, — the social, and industrial as well as the political.

We went to see the motion picture "Cardigan" one evening, the fifteen-year-old and myself. It is a vivid portrayal of New York's colonial history; there are real pictures of Johnson Hall and of the Mohawk. Sir William Johnson becomes through the actor a real man, not just a name in history; to the beholder the story of that time is relived before our eyes. But the thing that seemed to impress the audience most was Paul Revere's ride. The dark harbor, with the lower tower of old North against the sky-line, the waiting horseman on the Charlestown shore, then the two red lights gleaming out in the belfry, the speeding horse and rider, and morning breaking over Concord and Lexington. Why did it impress them especially? Because they

knew about Paul Revere — he was like an old acquaintance; every child in the grammar grades hears the poem, perhaps learns to recite it. But how many of them know Paul Revere did other things for humanity besides ride to give the midnight alarm? Others rode, too, that night, but we know him best because Longfellow immortalized him in verse.

Do they know that the Reveres also established and owned a brass foundry that is running yet? That in it was cast the brass work of the frigate *Constitution*? Do they know that Paul Revere was a great man in Massachusetts Province and that we owe as much to him for his ardent patriotism and loyal citizenship in the new Commonwealth as for his midnight alarm?

On the way home we talked about the history of those stirring times. The fifteen-year-old remarked, "I've learned more about history tonight than I did in a week in school." It does not need a motion picture to arouse historical interest; if it does, let us have them in the schools! Just a few wise hints here and there and the work is begun.

I remember once we were looking over an old examination paper and one question read, "Name three vegetable products whose use our ancestors learned from the Indians." I presume the answer was supposed to be "tobacco, Indian corn, and indigo," or the potato might have been one. The pupil was not a very enthusiastic worker but, upon suggestion, she thought out "maple sugar, pumpkins, wild turkey," to which might be added many more, including beans and squash,

to say nothing of several medicinal herbs, very valuable then and now.

Let people know you are personally interested in history and they will bring you facts and legends which they pick up and which will be of inestimable worth. "Did you know that the cock which used to be on the first old Dutch church of Albany and is now on the Madison Avenue church is said to be the oldest weathervane in America?" I knew merely that it was very old. "Yes," the lady continued, "there are bullet holes in it, fired by an Indian lurking around the stockades." For about three hundred years the weathervane has rested on some tower — has seen the Dutch fur-trading post become the capital of the Empire State.

Every place has some local history, landmarks, and characters which will help to build up an interest in history.

I was in Pilgrim Hall, Plymouth, one day when an elderly woman, her daughter, and little grandchild came in. The daughter did not care for the paintings nor for the relics but she waited, quite patiently, too, considering her lack of enthusiasm, while her mother looked about. The child was too young to understand much about all these relics of a bygone time, but it is safe to say she will remember the visit all her life. But that woman, how she did enjoy herself! What it meant to her! We got into conversation about the paintings as people do who have kindred interests, and then she wanted to know if I had found Miles Standish's sword. It was all real to her, this beautiful Plymouth town, though she had never seen it before — real as it should be to



every American whether they ever see it or not. So, too, should be each spot great in our country's history — north, south, east or west, they are the landmarks in a nation's history. How many places connected with our country's story are spots of rare natural beauty — Harper's Ferry, Lakes George and Champlain, Plymouth, the Delaware River where Washington crossed it one stormy night.

Why should not history be taught by enthusiastic teachers, why not studied with ardor? When as teachers you go into a new place, learn the local history and traditions, read other books than the school textbook, get men and women who know our nation's history to talk to you about it or, even better, to talk to your pupils. "Chil-

dren will not be interested." Oh, yes, they will; unless perverted, children have a consuming desire to know about everything.

One cold winter evening beside the glowing wood fire in the grate, my pupils, girls and boys, with some of their younger brothers, gathered to hear a man well posted on local history tell about the legends of the Onondaga Indians and of their haunts throughout the county. For two hours those children listened spellbound to the man who thrilled with his subject, and then for another hour he talked to those who could stay upon the origin of our alphabet.

"Life is what we make it," we often hear quoted; so, too, is the learning and teaching of history.

## THE CLEARING HOUSE

### A TRIP TO JAPAN: A PROJECT IN FIRST GRADE

I. *Situation.* During a free period a group of boys planned a kite and made it. When the class went out to watch the boys fly the kite, we found that they could not get it up. Then we called on two seventh-grade boys to help us. They succeeded in getting the kite up in a very few minutes. It went up so high and the wind was so strong that the string broke and the kite got away from us. One of the seventh-grade boys said, "Why don't you make a Japanese kite?" Immediately the question arose, "What is a Japanese kite?" We looked through our books to see if we could find out anything about Japanese kites, and did find several pictures and diagrams.

One lunch time a little girl in the class went home and returned to school dressed in a Chinese costume, causing great excitement and pleasure to all the children. I asked the children if they knew anything about China, and they immediately responded, but confused the customs of China and Japan. As there is a little boy in our class who was born in Japan, I decided to make use of the opportunity of studying that country under the following topics: (1) how the Japanese children live; (2) what they eat; (3) kinds of homes they live in; (4) how they travel; (5) games they play; (6) how they dress; (7) their schools.

II. *Beginning of the project.* Each child wrote a note to his mother asking her how she would go from Pikesville to Japan.

The following day the majority of the class came back with a reasonable reply.

It was decided that we have a lecture on Japan providing we could find enough to talk about, and could make it interesting enough so that somebody else would really enjoy hearing what we had learned.

III. *Material.* The following Japanese material was gathered during the solution of our problems (by pupils of class, of other classes, by teacher and patrons).

1. Toys and dishes made in Japan.
2. Real pieces of Japanese silk.
3. Japanese water flowers.
4. Japanese clothing (real clogs, sandals, silk kimonos).

5. Real Japanese papers and magazines.
6. Real Japanese pictures.
7. Real Japanese money.
8. Real Japanese chop sticks.
9. Books telling about Japan.
10. Japanese fairy tales.

In addition to materials gathered, the mother of the little boy who had lived in Japan talked with the children, making very real to them the food, home, clothing, and way of travel in Japan.

IV. "*Lecture on Japan.*" Two representatives from each of the other grades in the school were with us during this lecture, reporting back to their classes.

## PROGRAM

### PART I — PATRIOTIC

- I. The Call to Maryland, America, Japan.....Atkinson Walke
  1. Maryland
    - { My State
    - { My State's Flag.....Martha Dilhofer
    - a. Victrola — *Maryland, My Maryland*  
(Children humming.)
  2. America
    - { My Country
    - { My Country's Flag.....Richard Harmon
    - a. Victrola — *America*  
(Children humming.)
  3. Japan
    - { Another Country
    - { Another Country's Flag.....Harriet Naylor
    - a. Victrola — *Fou so ko*  
(Children humming.)
  4. The Star Spangled Banner.....Robert Olsen
    - a. Victrola — *The Star Spangled Banner*  
(Children humming.)
  5. Chorus — *America*.....The Class

### PART II

- I. Presentation of Japan.....Philip Heaver
  1. Problem: From what sources did we learn about Japan?
    - a. Books.
    - b. Mrs. Walke's lecture.
    - c. Our mothers and fathers.
    - d. The seventh grade.
    - e. Pictures.
    - f. Seeing things from Japan.
    - g. Our teacher.



- II. Japan Speaks. . . . . Harriet Naylor
1. Problems.
    - a. How would you go from Pikesville to Japan? . . . . . Edgar Rohde  
(Map made by seventh grade; drawings made by children; explanation of map brought in by first-grade child.)
    - b. What kind of a steamer would take you to Japan? . . . . . Philip Heaver  
(Illustrations from advertisements of steamship companies.)
    - c. What kind of people would you meet in Japan? . . . . . Elizabeth Cone  
(Pictures, kimona and clogs from Japan, paper parasol.)
    - d. How would you travel from the wharf to the hotel in Japan? . . . . . Atkinson Walke  
(Drawings made by children.)
  2. Song — *Children of Japan*. . . . . Choir
- III. The Japanese Home.
1. Problems.
    - a. How does the outside of the home look? . . . . . Robert Olsen  
(Illustrated at board.)
    - b. How does the inside of the home look? . . . . . { Maxine Clayton  
Margaret Essig  
Herbert Bowen
      - (1) Mats.  
(Drawings made by children.)
      - (2) Tables and chairs. . . . . { Harriet Naylor  
Milton Fromm  
(Book.)
      - (3) Japanese Meal. . . . . { Atkinson Walke  
Robert Olsen  
William Jones  
(Illustrated by dramatization; real chop sticks.)
  2. Poem — *Chop Sticks*. . . . . Edgar Rohde
  3. Exhibition of dishes made in Japan, brought from homes by children. . . . . { Bertie Schaffer  
James Hamilton  
Richard Harmon
  4. Problems.
    - a. What kind of a bed would you find in the Japanese home? . . . . . { Martha Dilhofer  
Nathaniel Wright  
(Drawing made by child.)
    - b. How is the Japanese home made beautiful? . . . . . { Daniel Holden  
Maxine Clayton  
Douglas Childs
      - (1) Cherry blossoms.
      - (2) Real Japanese pictures.
      - (3) Prints from Tokyo, Japan.
  5. Poem — *What Would You Do?* . . . . . Doris McCullough
- IV. Japanese Opera. . . . . Phonograph
1. Gems from the *Mikado*.
  2. "Duet of the Flowers" — *Madame Butterfly*.
- V. Japanese Nursery Tale—"Monotaro" . . . . . { Atkinson Walke  
Elizabeth Cone  
Maxine Clayton  
Philip Heaver
- VI. Japanese School (dramatization). Teacher — James Hamilton. Pupils — Nowal Schwartz, Frances Kerns, William Jones, Atkinson Walke, David Warfel.
1. Real Japanese magazine.

2. Japanese greeting.
  3. Japanese writing.
  4. Real Japanese newspaper.
- VII. Japanese Fairy Tale — The Lantern and the Fan.
1. Reading dramatization, Riverside Reader, Book II.  
(Edgar Rohde, William Jones, Robert Olsen, Philip Heaver.)
- VIII. Poem — *The First Folding Fan*.  
(Virginia Bosley, Maxine Clayton, Margaret Essig.)
- IX. Pleasures of the Japanese.
1. Problems.
    - a. What is the "Feast of Flags"?.....David Warfel  
(Drawings.)
    - b. What is the "Feast of Dolls"?.....Atkinson Walke  
(Japanese dolls.)
    - c. What are Japanese water flowers?.....Robert Olsen
- X. Exhibition of Toys Made in Japan.....  
(Brought from home by children.)
- XI. Dramatization — The Tongue Cut Sparrow.
- |                      |                  |
|----------------------|------------------|
| Kind Old Woman.....  | Maxine Clayton   |
| Kind Old Man.....    | Edgar Rohde      |
| Cross Old Woman..... | Martha Dilhofer  |
| Sparrow.....         | Robert Olsen     |
| Sparrow's Child..... | Doris McCullough |
| Bat.....             | David Warfel     |
| Field Mouse.....     | James Hamilton   |
| Horrible Creatures   |                  |
- (Catherine Hohn, Herbert Bowen, Frances Kerns, Virginia Bosley, Ira Hoffacker.)
- XII. Japanese Song — "Masa Chan".....Choir
- XIII. Our Flag.....Doris McCullough
- 
- V. *Phases of subject-matter necessary for the development of the project.*
1. *Language* (written).
    - a. Writing to mother asking her how she would go from Pikesville to Japan.
    - b. A letter of thanks to Miss Boettner for the Japanese pictures which she gave us.
    - c. Letters of invitation to other classes, parents, supervisors, and interested people from the Maryland State Normal School and Goucher College.
  2. *Language* (oral).
    - a. Oral invitations to some classes.
  - b. Summary of each day's problem solved, given by different members of class.
  - c. Lecture for the parents.
  3. *Literature*.
    - a. Reproductions of stories.
    - b. Dramatizations.
    - c. Poems.
  4. *Geography*.
    - a. Travel in America.
    - b. Travel in Japan.
    - c. People: how they look and how they dress; games they play; food; homes.
  5. *Arithmetic*.
    - a. Value of a yen.
    - b. Length of a Japanese mat (6



- foot rulers long and 3 rulers wide).
- c. Number of days it takes to go to Japan.
6. *Spelling*.  
Flower, water, doll, flag, man, old, bat, our, my, fish, an, Japan, how, we, go, to, would, get, on, car, table, bed, home, house, pretty, come, our, map, is, little, eat, with, tea, rice, green, see, mat, toy, dish, made, and, in.
7. *Enriched vocabulary*.  
Obi, sake, ocean, steamer, train, jinrikisha, coolie, island, Sea of Japan, Yellow Sea, Pacific Ocean, map, Maryland, America, Japan.
8. *Music*.  
a. Singing songs about the Japanese — class, choir, solo.
9. *Phonograph*.  
a. Appreciation ("Gems from Mikado").  
b. Association of countries with national anthems.  
c. Rhythm (waving flags in time to music of anthems).  
d. Humming tunes to national airs.
10. *Drawing* (crayon).  
a. Automobile.  
b. Street cars.  
c. Train.  
d. Steamer.  
e. Jinrikisha.  
f. Japanese pillow, clogs, home, and bridges.  
(Blackboard drawings while talking to make ideas clear.)
11. *Writing*.  
a. See *Language*.  
b. Drill on the following letters, because they were poorly written on the invitations: Pp, Jj, Hh, Ww, Ff.  
c. Descriptive phrase under each illustrative drawing.

12. *Reading*.

- a. Pleasure (fairy tales).  
b. Supervised study.  
c. Dramatizations (supervised by pupil-teacher in library).

VI. *Appreciations and attitudes involved*.

1. It gave each child in the class more confidence in himself, thereby developing initiative and leadership.
2. Appreciation of the kinds and value of materials manufactured in Japan and used by us (toys, dishes, and clothing).
3. Desire to study about something else — shown by child asking, "What are we to study next?"
4. Real joy as evidenced by interests which grew out of the activity and held attention to the end.
5. It brought together patrons, school officials (including supervisors of instruction and members of the Board of Education), and a college professor particularly interested in primary education. This brought about a greater appreciation for the skills, habits, knowledges, and attitudes acquired in first grade which should be built upon throughout life.

LEAH W. DAWSON,  
Pikesville School,  
Baltimore Co., Md.

A CORRECTION

Miss Martha B. Ackerman, Elementary School Principal in Claremont, California, desires us to say that the report of "A Construction Project" which appeared on page 216 of our January, 1923, issue should have been accredited to Miss Helen M. Bogue, teacher of the third grade in the Claremont School. We are glad to make this correction.

## AS REPORTED

### RAISING THE REQUIREMENTS

*School Life* for January states that the professional standards for teachers in New York State have been raised by the Board of Regents. The normal school course has been lengthened from two to three years and the requirements for certificates made more stringent. After July, 1924, licenses to teach will not be granted to high school graduates who have had only a six-weeks' course in a normal school. For the time being, one-year training classes for the preparation of rural teachers will be continued. It is hoped, however, that many persons may be induced to take a longer course in preparation for this work. The new courses in the normal school are divided into three groups: those for kindergarten-primary, those for grammar or middle grades, and those for intermediate or junior high school grades. Students will elect one of these groups and will receive a license to teach in the corresponding schools. Work done in any of the teachers' colleges of the State will give full credit toward the Bachelor's degree.

### LIVE TEACHERS' MEETINGS

Interest in modern movements in education is stimulated in Cliffside Park, New Jersey, by means of well-planned teachers' meetings carried on under the leadership of the supervising principal, Mr. George F. Hall. Recent programs dealt with the Project Method. This was discussed by the teachers themselves, who offered arguments both for and against. They gave their own personal experiences in applying the idea and reported projects then under way in the Cliffside Park schools. Among these projects were "A School Paper," "The Pageant," "The May Day Festival," "The

School Bank," dramatizations, and projects in geography and industrial arts. At the close of one of these meetings the children of a fifth grade presented an original sketch — a history project which had grown out of their study of the life of Benjamin Franklin.

### THANK YOU

The *Bulletin of High Points* of New York City, under date of December, 1922, had this to say about the *Journal of Educational Method*:

Among the educational periodicals which reach the office of the *Bulletin of High Points*, none is of more immediate practical value than the scholarly and dignified *Journal of Educational Method*, published by The World Book Company (Yonkers, N. Y.) for the National Conference on Educational Method.

Even more complimentary is the notice given by Dr. Winship in the *Journal of Education* for December 28, 1922. He says:

This is the one indispensable magazine for teachers using the Project Method. It is edited by Dr. James F. Hosis, and its contributors include the best exponents of "purposeful activity." The second volume opens with the first of a series of articles on the Project Method by Dr. Hosis himself. Educators who believe in the Institute as a means of supervision will be interested in the article by Mabel E. Simpson, Director of Elementary Education in Rochester, New York.

The leading contribution in the October number is on "The Rating of Teachers on the Basis of Supervisory Visitation," by Rose A. Carrigan of Boston. It also contains "A Project in Community Health," by Ellsworth Collings, "Methods of History Study," by A. Curtis Wilgus, and an article on "The Use of Dramatics in Seventh-Grade History."

The books chosen for review give the very latest word in educational methods.



We are indebted to the *Journal of Education* for the following items of information:

A syllabus on character education which has been prepared by Superintendent R. W. Fairchild and Assistant Superintendent Mae Kilkullen of the Fond du Lac, Wisconsin, schools has been adopted in cities of thirty-one states, according to a recent report. As the plan is just being tried out in Fond du Lac, the syllabus has not yet been published in pamphlet form, but copies are sent free of charge to anyone interested in the work.

The Milwaukee Teachers' Association has voted to equip a library and reading room at a cost of over \$1,000. This is to contain professional books and publications.

Assistant Superintendent Alice Louise Harris of Worcester, Massachusetts, discussing "The Project Method" in her annual report, says that much work that is called project does not stand the test. The project has definite psychological factors which many teachers do not know, but which can readily be acquired by individual

initiative through the reading and study of the various publications on it and kindred subjects.

A project is not a thing that can be copied from some one else. It must be born of a definite situation, local to a particular group. Much so-called project is only a cleverly organized topic or simply a piece of work in concrete construction without psychological or educative background.

The real project includes a wider conception of method than the simple means of teaching the facts or knowledge pertaining to a specific subject; on the contrary, it recognizes and offers opportunities, during the learning of some particular thing, to learn also a multitude of other things, which may be either good things to have acquired or bad things to have acquired. In addition to the academic facts of the school subjects, such things as habits of study, likes and dislikes toward the subject, school, teacher, and authority, either positive or negative self-regard, ingenuity, and so on are being built into the consciousness. Thus not merely academic facts are acquired, but many by-products such as desirable qualities of citizenship, application, interest in family and community, etc.

## THE READER'S GUIDE

### GUIDES TO IMPROVEMENT

Four new books approach the problem of improvement of teachers in four different ways, all good. Mr. Brooks uses tests.<sup>1</sup> By these he makes everybody concerned aware of the conditions and needs. Then he organizes a constructive program of reform. The particular subject in which he experimented most fully was primary reading in rural schools. Oral reading badly taught prevailed. He substituted silent reading better taught for longer periods and got favorable results. Whether these

flowed wholly from the change from oral to silent reading, as he seems to think, at any rate Mr. Brooks has given the most satisfactory account of how tests have actually been used in a practical way and deserves to be read accordingly.

Mr. Grant has attempted a new type of textbook for education classes.<sup>2</sup> He would have students think things out for themselves. Hence he cuts down his exposition and gives the space to collections of statements, some true, some false — the student must decide. Abundant specific references

<sup>1</sup> Brooks, *Improving Schools by Standard Tests*. Houghton Mifflin Co.

<sup>2</sup> Grant, *Acquiring Skill in Teaching*. Silver, Burdett & Co.

are named and the class discussion is expected to clear up doubtful points. As a substitute for hand-me-down solutions of the problems of teaching, Mr. Grant's provision for constructive study is beyond all praise. A total of sixty-six topics are presented, under such general heads as "The Teacher, the School, and the Community," "Principles of Education and Administration," "The Technique of Teaching," "School Hygiene," and "Human Nature." Two teacher-rating cards are added in the appendix. Reading circles will find this book admirable.

Superintendent Stark uses the inductive method.<sup>1</sup> Out of a long experience he has gathered a wealth of instances. These he arranges in the form of a classified series of problems, followed by explicit statement of the principles involved. Additional problems for the reader to solve for himself are appended to each chapter. Here we have the "case system" as contrasted with the well-worn lecture plan to which we have so long been accustomed. The author has anticipated the objection that different students will reach different solutions by saying that there is not always one best solution and that which you choose will depend largely upon the conditioning factors which you assume. This too will prove a remarkably interesting handbook for classes or reading circles. It is, besides, a pleasant companion for the evening lamp — has plenty of "human interest," in short.

Professor Parker has achieved a compilation in his best manner.<sup>2</sup> This study of "types" rounds out the series begun with his *History of Elementary Education* and continued with his *Methods of Teaching in High School* and *General Methods of Teaching in the Elementary School*. The chief types of teaching which he distinguishes are those having to do with elementary skills, with

processes requiring careful thinking, and with recreational and moral behavior. Such a psychological organization has obvious advantages and Professor Parker has fairly well guarded the student from the danger of overemphasis upon abilities prominent but by no means exclusive in the subjects selected for treatment under each head. Like the *General Methods* this work is intended for beginners and the author has exercised great care to make his purpose and meaning entirely clear. Guideposts are set up at every stage of the journey. Illustrations of actual teaching are numerous and usually precede reports of scientific investigations, and these in turn summaries of principles. The references are fully annotated. Photographs of class work and of sample charts and measuring scales are interspersed. Every device needed for a thorough job has been painstakingly supplied. Whether or not the student reaches out to supplement the text will depend upon his ideals of study or the stimulation of the instructor. In any case a remarkable body of useful data drawn from progressive modern practice and many of the most recent investigations, particularly those at the University of Chicago, has been placed at the ready command of the learner. Many instructors will undoubtedly regard this as the best treatment of method in the elementary subjects. In actual use it should be preceded or accompanied by the author's *General Methods* in order that criteria for selection of subject matter and provision for conditions favorable to learning may be kept steadily in view.

#### SIGNIFICANT ARTICLES

##### THE PROJECT METHOD IN COMPOSITION

Mr. W. W. Hatfield, of the Chicago Normal College, is contributing to *The English Journal* a series of unusually helpful articles

<sup>1</sup> Stark, *Every Teacher's Problems*. American Book Co.

<sup>2</sup> Parker, *Types of Elementary Teaching and Learning*. Ginn & Co.



on "The Project Method in Composition." In the second installment, which appears in the January number, he deals with a number of aspects of the technique of project instruction such as the launching of the project, group and individual planning, and the judgment of results. He points out that getting the project to going is the most difficult part of the process and he presents a number of concrete illustrations of how to do it. Criticism and the mastery of form he also recognizes as important and offers wise words on both.

#### THE SOCIALIZED PROGRAM

Dr. Winship gives space in the *Journal of Education* for January 25 to a long article by Miss Anna F. Jenkins on "The Socialized Program of Education." The writer believes that education is passing through a change in the direction of greater emphasis upon democracy in schoolroom work. She finds helpful suggestions as to the new program in Mr. Wilson's *Motivation of School Work* and Professor Kilpatrick's treatment of the project idea, as well as in accounts of experimental schools such as that of Mrs. Johnson at Fairhope, Alabama. Those who are sympathetic with the somewhat eclectic view of the newer ideas in education will find this article by Miss Jenkins a good summary. The socialized recitation and the project method, however, are by no means identical concepts, and there is the possibility of real danger in confusing them. The second is certainly rather a philosophy.

#### A NEW NATIONAL REVIEW

Mr. George A. Brown, well known as the editor and publisher of *School and Home Education*, and the head of the Public School Publishing Company in Bloomington, Illinois, has undertaken the more ambitious venture of a national bimonthly of general appeal, called the *American Review*. In the opening number, that for January-February, 1923, Mr. Brown in an editorial

states that the *Review* will be devoted to the exposition of a philosophy and a religious faith adequate to the conception of a democratic union of the people. Two articles in this number are referred to as particularly supporting this purpose, namely, "Hast Any Philosophy in Thee, Shepherd?" by Professor M. C. Otto, and "Religion — A Coöperative Quest for the Good Life," by A. Eustace Haydon. Other contributors to this number are Miss Zona Gale, the author, Mr. T. J. McCormack, a long and most acceptable reviewer for *School and Home Education*, and Dr. F. E. Williams, of the National Committee for Mental Hygiene. The managing editor of the new magazine is Mr. B. T. Thayer, 33 Central Park West, New York City. Subscriptions are \$3.00 a year and should be sent to *American Review*, 407 South Main Street, Bloomington, Illinois.

#### THE NEW BOOKS

*Literature and Life*, Book Two. By Edwin Greenlaw and Clarence Stratton. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1922. Pp. x+626.

An anthology planned for the second year of high school. Miscellaneous selections from verse, fiction, and drama are followed by representative American literature.

*Studies in Literary Appreciation*. An introduction to Criticism. By F. H. Pritchard. London: George Harrap & Co., 1922. Pp. 203.

Intended for training secondary school pupils in the understanding and enjoyment of literary technique.

*Junior High School Mathematics*. By E. H. Taylor and Fiske Allen. First Book, pp. 210; Second Book, pp. 251; Third Book, pp. 155. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1919-22.

*Spontaneous and Supervised Play in Childhood*. By Alice Corbin Sies. New York: Macmillan Co., 1922. Pp. 442.

Full of specific instances and illustrations.

*Education on the Dalton Plan.* By Helen Parkhurst. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., 1922. Pp. xx+278.

A detailed account of the laboratory or individual plan of instruction as worked out in certain experimental high schools.

*Dalton Plan Assignments.* Compiled by the Streatham County Secondary School for Girls. London: G. Bell & Sons, Ltd., 1922. Vol. I, English, Geography, History. Pp. 86. Vol. II, Mathematics and Science. Pp. 71. Price, 2/- net each.

Manuals for use in individual work in high school according to the Dalton Plan.

*Problems of American Democracy.* By R. O. Hughes. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1922. Pp. xxii+616+30. Illus. \$1.60.

A book of social studies for the upper years of high school. Well written and well illustrated.

*Education in a Democracy.* By Dallas L. Sharp. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1922. Pp. 154. \$1.25.

A stirring appeal for a more liberal and less formal type of instruction; an indictment of private schools.

*The Junior Highway to English.* By C. H. Ward and H. Y. Moffett. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1922. Pp. 331.

A textbook for the seventh and eighth grades. Strong emphasis is placed on drill in grammatical and mechanical correctness.

*Comma Book for Use with the Junior Highway to English.* By C. H. Ward and H. Y. Moffett. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1922. 19 sheets.

An exercise book with perforated leaves.

*Topical Outlines of Geography.* Developed According to the Problem Method. By H. W. Fairbanks. Vol. I, North America and South America. Pp. x+226. Vol. II, Europe, Asia, Africa, Australia, Islands of the Pacific. Pp. x+248. Philadelphia: P. Blakiston's Son & Co., 1921.

Guides to study. A good atlas and other reference books are presupposed.

#### IN PAPER COVERS

*Material for the Teaching of Spelling.* By John A. Lester. Reprinted from The English Journal, Vol. XI, No. 7, September, 1922.

*The Relation of an Inventory of Habits to Character Development.* By Agnes L. Rogers, Goucher College, Baltimore, Md.

*Financing Public Education.* Minutes of Chicago meeting. Washington, D. C.: Department of Superintendence of N. E. A., May, 1922.

*The Use of Mental Tests in School Administration.* By Virgil E. Dickson. Berkeley, Cal.: Board of Education Monograph No. 4, June, 1922.

*Minimum Essentials in English.* A Textbook for Grades Seven to Twelve. By Cathryn R. Goble, Central High School, Muskogee, Okla.

*High School Reading Lists.* Prepared by members of English Department, High School of Commerce, New York City. Chas. Scribner's Sons, 1922.

*Written Examinations and Their Improvement.* By Walter S. Monroe. Relation of Size of Class to School Efficiency. By Bureau of Educational Research. Urbana, Ill.: University of Illinois Bulletin, Nos. 9 and 10.

*Manual for High Schools.* Also *Manual and Syllabuses for Elementary Schools.* Harrisburg, Pa.: Department of Public Instruction, 1922.

*Projects in Citizenship.* By R. W. Hatch. Leonia, N. J.: The Citizenship Company, 1923. 50 cents.

*Clerical Test K.* Devised and Standardized by Eugene J. Bengé. Chicago, Ill.: C. H. Stoelting Co., 1922.

*Otis Self-Administering Tests of Mental Ability.* By Arthur S. Otis. Yonkers, N. Y.: World Book Co., 1922.



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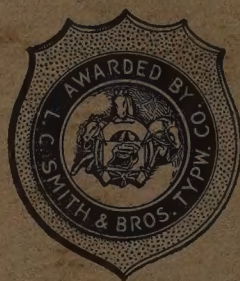
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